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ABSTRACT

This survey and critique of the 1968 publication, Teachers for the Real World, considers first the knowledge basis of teacher education, identifying 27 of these under the headings of social realities, teaching, teacher training, and theory, giving page references in each instance. The form of the proposal is then analyzed in detail for general characteristics, structural components, theoretical components, training component, and field-teaching component. Finally, the qualitative aspects of the proposal are discussed with the hope that the technical characteristics and structural features will receive similar examination. (MBM)

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An Analysis of:

# Teachers for the Real World

Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969

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The significance of AACTE's latest proposal for educating the nation's teachers is to be found in two distinctive features. Teachers for the Real World, the outline of this comprehensive new plan, first relies upon a firmer knowledge base for teacher education than most similar documents and, at the same time, is presented in complete enough form that both its substantive recommendations and its guidelines for concrete implementation are readily apparent. Both of these characteristics lend the proposal a high degree of credibility and enhance its potential acceptance. Both will be examined in this article.

## New Knowledge Bases

Many instances can be cited of the kinds of knowledge that are identified in this proposal as the bases for its recommendations. Each of these knowledge claims is considered to be valid empirically, theoretically, or practically. Some have gained this status only recently and are identified for the profession for the first time in this book. Others have been recognized as valid for a long time but have remained unused or ignored in many teacher education programs. The following items are among those identified by the authors of this new AACTE proposal about what is known about teacher training, about teaching, about the uses of theory, and about social realities, as they are related to teacher education.

### About Social Realities

1. We know that pupils generally referred to as disadvantaged do not have an inferior culture, nor are they socialized in an inferior manner by inadequate parents, nor have they undergone a stifling of cognitive

stimulation in their pre-school years, nor do they possess inferior intellectual endowment, as is so often assumed (pp. 4 and 12). Stigmatizing them as culturally disadvantaged often results in exclusion from broader cultural activities while denying the value of the culture out of which they have come. This is in reality a way of reinforcing racism and denies freedom of opportunity.

2. We know that teachers often participate in perpetuating these inappropriate social values by the kinds of interpretations of children's behavior they make and the attitudes they display toward them. The use of dialect is in itself no indication of shallowness of thought or feeling (p. 11). If a child is told his language is inferior, he sees everything in which language is involved as being rejected by the teachers (p. 6). If history is taught in such a way that pupil's ethnic pride is insulted, or perhaps not fostered at all, he will very likely disengage himself from such a process and his receptivity to related experiences of schooling is reduced. Teachers all too easily confuse their own racial, class, or ethnic biases with what they call academic standards (p. 5). Ignorant of the inherent bias of many of the standards they uphold, teachers tend to attribute to pupils lack of intelligence or some other presumed deficiency as a way of accounting for the failure to meet set academic standards. The unintelligibility of the curriculum which is often demonstrated by pupils, or their inability to maintain self-control, can be misinterpreted because of conscious or unconscious bias against pupils (p. 8). Because of prejudice, teachers and many others in the helping professions have failed to perform their tasks adequately among the poor whites, the blacks, the Indian, and the migrant (p. 15).

3. We know that the school system itself accentuates the learning problems of the deprived child (p. 15). Dropout rates, comparative test scores, teacher turnover in ghetto and poor areas, are evidence of the school system's failure to meet the requirements of quality education for pupils with special learning needs. Studies indicate that a lack of money for dues, trips, out-of-pocket expenses, etc., is a factor in limiting participation of pupils in school experiences (p. 14). Schools often neglect to provide assistance in overcoming the malnutrition suffered by the children of poverty. Prejudice has perpetuated certain curricular patterns, many segregated districts, negative self-images among black pupils, white control of Negro schools, and other structural and instructional arrangements that affect the school's impact at the point of actual learning experiences had by pupils.

4. We know that about twelve percent of all teachers leave the schools at the end of each school year (p. 22). Some, such as women who leave to rear children, return to teaching sometime later. Nevertheless, circumstances in the profession contribute to a high turn-over rate. Among these are lower incomes and prestige than some other professions (p. 23), lack of privileges normally granted to someone with expert skills -- the right to choose his tools, to decide when and how to use them, and to participate in policy decisions affecting his work situation (p. 25) -- and assignment and reward patterns that ignore distinctions in skill among teachers (p. 26). Studies also confirm similar reasons for teachers leaving deprived communities. In addition, insufficient preparation and the assignment of beginning teachers with less skill to schools in these areas contribute to a high sense of failure and hence to early leaving (pp. 28-29). These factors do not reflect the additional loss of possibly 20 to 25 percent of those who complete

teacher preparation each year who never find their way into teaching positions at all (pp. 21-22). A shortage of trained personnel will reamin if preparation programs do not reflect a change in career patterns of teachers from one in which everyone attempts to function in the same role for a lifetime to one in which there are differentiated roles and multiple entry points and levels of advancement. Changes in modes of recruitment, selection, training, assignment, and awarding of incentives to accord with this new pattern can provide an adequate work-force that matches both the circumstances of the schools and the strengths and weaknesses of the individual staff members (pp. 31-39).

5. We know that persons employed in elementary and secondary school settings tend to be loyal first to their individual school or system (p. 139). They are loyal second to their level or area of teaching and third to the precepts and commitment of the profession. This fact indicates that they put professional competence at a lower level of priority than they do other values.

About Teaching

6. We know that comparing and contrasting two unfamiliar concepts, which seem to be similar but are in fact different, results in the pupil becoming confused and the concepts blurred (p. 45 and p. 62). In teaching the concepts, for example, of imperialism and colonialism, it is more effective to deal with them separately, teaching one of them until it is thoroughly mastered before introducing the other. Differences can be indicated, if desired, between the new concept and the one previously learned, if distinguishing elements are needed in order to avoid the one being mistaken for the other.

7. We know that teaching behavior is a very complex phenomenon made up of many components, and when observed, will yield diverse facts, depending upon the point of view from which it is observed (p. 54). It may be looked upon as feeding information into the learning process. More or less effective control of the content of instruction may be observed when teaching is viewed in this way. It may also be looked upon in terms of the teacher's behavior toward the responses of the pupils. Here the role of the affective aspects of teacher-learner interactions may be discovered. The investigations of Bellack and Withall, among others, are the bases for these elements of new knowledge about teaching. Teaching behavior may also be analyzed from the standpoint of both cognitive and affective factors interacting simultaneously. The studies of teaching behavior that have utilized there various perspectives indicate far more about the elements of teaching behavior and the relationship among them than we have known before (p. 55). The categories developed in these studies naturally vary considerably, but there is more similarity in what the categories refer to in substance than the differences in labels seem to indicate (p. 55). Certain behaviors are performed by all teachers no matter what the content may be (p. 55). The identification of these behaviors for the first time, as a result of these descriptive analyses of teaching, makes it possible for the teacher to utilize quite consciously certain behaviors for certain purposes. The nature of the skill required to bring about certain short-time instructional consequences can be described, understood, and mastered (pp. 55-56). Unfortunately, the behaviors identified by the several systems of analysis of teaching have not yet been related empirically to measures of student achievement. We do not know what long-term learning is produced by the modes of behavior described by any particular study, nor do we know which patterns of behaviors found by the various

observation systems is more effective in attaining a given type of learning goal (p. 55).

8. We know that a teacher's perception of a learning situation is often quite different from that of the pupil (p. 63). Pupil responses that differ from the expected ones may indicate that the situation is not being viewed from a common perspective. A child who is personally involved in the consequences of poverty, for example, may view something like a labor strike quite differently from the way in which the teacher perceives it. A pupil's perceptions shape his responses and what he will learn. Teaching behavior which is adjusted to take into account the possibility of such differences in perception is more likely to result in appropriate learning than if the teacher assumes that wrong connections are being made by the child or that the difficulty is a result of a poor attitude. Feelings and attitudes do not flow in one direction (p. 89). When a teacher attempts to control pupil behavior in accordance with his own attitudes, clashes between himself and his pupils are likely to occur (p. 90).

9. We know that the nature of the subject matter being taught has as much influence upon the behavior of the teacher as his knowledge of the pupils (p. 125). In addition to having at his command the content to be utilized in instruction, the teacher in determining his teaching behaviors utilizes knowledge about the subject matter and about the logical operations used in manipulating it. He recognizes the differences between various forms of subject matter, such as concepts and generalizations. He distinguishes between statements of fact and statements of value, for instance. Subject matter of particular relevance to the learners of that which reflects social or ethnic bias is noted by the teacher. He is aware of the variety of uses that can be made of particular subject matter by learners. The many kinds of logical

manipulations that can be performed on subject matter, such as defining, classifying, explaining, or inferring, are also recognized by the teacher. How the teacher reacts to these aspects of subject matter while it is being utilized in teaching depends upon the extent of his understanding of them and his training in handling them in relation to instructional purposes.

10. We know that the significance of a teacher's personality and style of teaching as factors in determining effectiveness has been overemphasized (pp. 81-82). While a teacher's personality, attitudes, and feelings obviously influence his teaching, specific expressions of personality cannot be said to account for the quality of learning in pupils who have been influenced by them. Both favorable and unfavorable learning consequences can result from exposure to the same "positive" personality characteristics. Even certain personality expressions often labeled "negative" have resulted in desirable as well as undesirable pupil learning.

11. We know that the more abstract the subject matter of instruction is, the more concerned pupils are apt to be about the value of the content being studied (p. 131). It is relatively easy for a learner to see the use that can be made of a fundamental skill even at the time he is attempting to master it. The utility of abstract subject matter is more difficult to discern and to demonstrate at that time. Unless there is a sufficiently cogent reason given for learning such subject matter and the pupil sees its ultimate utility, there is considerable likelihood that any instructional efforts will not result in adequate learning. Perhaps the main reason why it is difficult to demonstrate the usefulness of abstract knowledge to the skeptical pupil is because much of it is not directly observable in use. Yet it can be shown that certain knowledge serves to relate ideas (the associative use), to interpret objects and events (the interpretive use), and to solve problems

not previously encountered (the applicative use). These three categories of utility appear in the thinking of all persons, whatever their age, occupation, social position, or origin (pp. 131-133).

About Teacher Training

12. We know that teachers require no special training to teach underprivileged children since these children learn in the same way as other children (p. 12). Teachers need preparation that is adequate for working with children of any social, racial, or ethnic group. The teaching of poor or disadvantaged children does not require unique skills, as does teaching the blind or the emotionally or mentally handicapped. The problem does not arise from a difference within the children themselves but from the situations in which they live, their life styles, and the schools they attend.

The special circumstances in which children find themselves cannot be ignored in teacher preparation any more than in teaching itself, but the ways in which differences in circumstances affect learning vary only in degree and not in kind from one instructional situation to another. Training to teach with these differences present is to prepare to teach pupils as individuals, not as instances of a category having common characteristics. Social, racial, or economic categories do not circumscribe the conditions necessary for learning to take place. Teachers, to be adequately prepared, require skills related to establishing these conditions. Beyond this, they require no more than a broad vision of the kind of life experiences that may be had by pupils of varied backgrounds and circumstances.

13. We know that all too generally teacher training is characterized

by its remoteness from the realities of classroom practice, by its condoning of anti-intellectualism of teachers, by its attempt to "tool up" everyone to fulfill a teaching role requiring a very wide range of skills and competencies (pp. 8-9). Given the present social and educational realities, these characteristics are inappropriate for teacher training institutions and their programs. What is required is radical reform (p. 9). Efforts to repair the remotemess of teacher preparation from practical realities by adding a course or two on the disadvantaged or bringing in an expert on the subject often reinforces the notion of cultural deprivation and leaves the trainee influenced negatively (p. 8). Teachers without the assistance of teacher aides have to perform every function from clerk to high-level instruction (p. 32). This too is unrealistic.

14. We know that teacher trainees who are well-prepared to deal with children of varying backgrounds and circumstances may still be baffled by problems in an integrated school that stem from racism (p. 19). Discipline problems can take on additional dimensions in a racially mixed class or when the teacher is of a different race from the pupil. There are similar difficulties when parents and faculty are involved. A teacher must also recognize racial prejudice in himself. Skill is required in resolving problems of interpersonal relations in such school situations.

15. We know that the teacher trainee's investment in his preparation is often not sufficiently different from that of a liberal arts student, in terms of courses, time, and money, to deter him from changing to another vocation or to discourage him from even entering upon teacher training (p. 24). Most other professions require extensive enough preparation to gain a professional commitment and competence on the part of the student. Considerable incentive to remain in the profession is generated.

16. We know that teachers who admit to being reluctant to teach in disadvantaged areas indicate that they are not sufficiently trained to do the job (pp. 27-28). While they may have met the requirements for teacher certification, they indicate that certain deficiencies persist in which their training programs did not prepare them adequately. For example, they feel they lack many skills and understandings necessary for coping with problems of pupil conduct. Often they are confronted by behavior they have never before seen. These teachers say they have not been trained to utilize theoretical knowledge to analyze new situations. They often cannot cope with their own attitudes that develop in these school situations. They find their teaching skills are inadequate to perform effectively in the classroom (pp. 28-29).

17. We know that not just anyone who looks at teaching behavior can tell what is going on and what is effective or ineffective about it (p. 53). It requires a serious effort to analyze teaching behavior and to arrive at dependable knowledge about it. Teaching is not simple, as recent descriptive studies reveal. Many student teachers and their supervisors attempt to say what is good teaching by superficial observation without understanding the constituent operations. Skill in analyzing and ordering this complex activity requires adequate training. A particular teaching situation is difficult to evaluate even after the elements are viewed from many angles and thoroughly understood, but it is foolish to take the judgment of one who is untrained in this analysis or who "teaches well" but cannot show what aspects constitute indicators of effective performance. The study of actual teaching behavioral situations, and interpreting them in light of knowledge of concepts about teaching derived from descriptive research, can increase control over one's subsequent teaching practice (p. 51).

18. We know that putting prospective teachers in field experiences where they face reality does not necessarily assist them to develop the ability to interpret objectively the situation or to master skills needed to cope with what is observed (pp. 68-69). Useful knowledge does not necessarily accrue from such exposure. Much of the present student teaching experience and other direct experience is based on the assumption that the student will learn what is essential via this approach, of course, accompanied by seminars and apprentice teaching with proper supervision (p. 69). Instead, the student is often shocked by the situation or overwhelmed by the difficulties noted. His lack of understanding of the techniques required -- material, social, intellectual, and emotional -- may suggest that it would be impossible for him ever to perform adequately in such situations. He may even give up in face of the reality and not seek further training. Rarely does he obtain the help required to acquire the many skills involved, which can literally tax the capacity of the most talented student. Seldom do persons pick up more than a few of these techniques in a short period of experience which includes very little actual training in mastering them. The supervisor of a student teacher typically works without a systematic conceptual framework to help him analyze and guide the trainee's performance (p. 70). At best, the student teacher learns by trial and error and a minimum of feedback (p. 70). To think that direct experience is the best way to produce skills needed is to ignore other less recognized options having great potential (p. 69). Specific training is needed to handle the realities effectively -- training for linguistic techniques, logical techniques, materials techniques, and psychological techniques (p. 69).

19. We know that not only considerable practice but also the trainee's awareness of consequences of his own behavior (feedback) is necessary if

he is to improve his skill (p. 78). We know that immediate feedback is more effective than delayed feedback, except when the performance can be replayed by means of video tape or film. Most important, feedback is most effective when the trainee is aware of the behavior to which it is directly relevant (pp. 79-80). While factual information and logical consistency with moral principles have a persuasive influence on the trainee's attitude, their influence is enhanced when they come from a source the trainee is favorably disposed to, whether an authority or a peer group to which he is devoted (p. 92).

20. We know that when personality is relied upon as a substitute for training, it becomes a stumbling block to the development of programs of teacher preparation (p. 81). The current tendency of MAT programs and others to reduce teaching to a craft which can be executed by anyone having knowledge of subject matter and having gone through a pseudo-internship or apprentice experience relies heavily upon the notion of the mystic power of personality (p. 82 and p. 102). The complexities of teaching skill are overlooked and programs omit a training component and the study of conceptual knowledge necessary to inform the skill training.

21. We know that the subject matter needed to teach a child of suburbia is essentially the same as that required to teach the ghetto child (p. 111). Any individual in our society requires scientific, social, and political understandings and many social and personal skills. Teachers of the poor need no less a range of experience and knowledge than teachers of the more economically successful. What subject matter preparation shall be required of the teachers of the disadvantaged is what is needed also by all teachers. The specific content a teacher needs to know has not been established nor has the problem been faced as fully as it deserves (p. 112). It is recognized that a

discipline-oriented program of general education leads to fragmentation because the total range of such studies cannot be gotten into the program of any particular student (p. 116). There is some question as to whether there are enough general ideas underlying all the disciplines around which general education could be organized. The suggestion to focus on a common intellectual method runs into the difficulty that methods of inquiry differ among disciplines (p. 117). At any rate, the basic value issues of our times require a general perspective that a discipline-oriented education has failed to confront with intellectual refinement and integrity (p. 118).

22. We know that teacher training institutions have failed to devise programs of perennial education that in fact result in improvement in teaching performance (p. 154). Courses in such programs are too often not directly related to the roles in which teachers have to function. Seldom are they designed to train specifically for ever increasing skill development. Even innovative in-service programs often are far from functional. There is evidence too that teacher trainees lack functional programs designed to up-date their skills in the techniques of teacher training itself (p. 161).

About the Use of Theory

23. We know that the fact that some teachers who have no theoretical training carry on their tasks skillfully at the craft level does not imply that teaching has no theoretical basis or that it needs none (p. 42). Non-theoretically trained teachers interpret events and objects in terms of common sense (p. 45). Those who claim theoretical knowledge is not essential to the development and use of the teacher's abilities are not aware of how this kind of knowledge functions in practical situations (p. 44). It is true that the relationship between theoretical knowledge and occupation is

indirect. One does not simply communicate this knowledge as the chief feature of the teaching act as one may do with the subject matter of instruction. It must be adapted to suit the realities of the teaching situation, and therefore it is just as important to know the situation itself as it is to have the theoretical knowledge to apply to it (p. 43). But there is considerable theoretical knowledge pertinent to teaching that is available to be learned (p. 47).

24. <u>We know that theoretical knowledge is different in its nature and functions from practical knowledge</u> (pp. 42-46). Practical knowledge generally takes the form of rules or guidelines for human action or for the attainment of some particular end. This type of knowledge is quite rightly a part of the knowledge required in carrying out the tasks of teaching, but it is used primarily to respond to familiar situations and entails having some way of verifying the norms involved as appropriate to certain kinds of situations. There are more situations to face in teaching than there are practical procedures known by a given teacher which will fit them exactly. Even if many are known, the skill necessary to recognize what specific prescriptive guideline should be followed in a particular situation depends largely upon theoretical knowledge about the situation, its features and elements, and upon similar knowledge about what the guideline was designed to cover. Theoretical knowledge is more abstract than practical knowledge. It is made up of empirical or conceptual forms of knowledge, such as concepts, generalizations, and particular propositions like statements of fact. It is used primarily to interpret what is observed and to solve problems to which solutions are not already known. In contrast, practical knowledge is used to respond to situations for which appropriate responses are already understood by the person involved and all he has to do is replicate those responses.

Teachers often do not know the difference between these two types of knowledge nor have they had adequate training in their uses.

25. We know that theoretical knowledge prescribed for teacher training is seldom chosen or arranged in ways that permit the trainee to understand adequately how it can function in real situations (p. 46-48). Theoretical knowledge is largely drawn from the disciplines. Typically, courses in education include such knowledge, reconstructed into a logical order that permits systematic study. The criterion for selecting the content of theoretical courses in education has most often been its relevance to the study of pedagogy as an academic discipline, rather than its relevance to its usefulness in actually educating children and adults. The value of concepts and generalizations taught in these courses appears to the trainee to be minor since their practical utility in teaching is not immediately perceived. By the time he attempts to apply this knowledge in a field experience, transfer may be impossible. He has not been made aware of the proper functions of theoretical knowledge and perhaps has concluded it has no practical value for teaching. To know what using it to interpret new situations or to solve problems really means requires developing concepts and laws in connection with the real problems with which teachers must deal. Education courses have ordinarily been organized more like liberal arts courses than like the more practical organization of law or medicine where the trainee sees how theoretical knowledge can be used to advantage to diagnose situations and to make decisions about it. The failure of education courses to enable teachers to do this sort of thing well is documented in the weaknesses detected, for instance, in their dealing with the problems of culturally different children. They may underrate capacity, respond unconstructively to unfamiliar behavior patterns, or fail to understand learning difficulties

because they cannot interpret these situations with appropriate theoretical knowledge. For a teacher to acquire a set of theoretical concepts and to use them effectively in interpretation and problem solving is not easy. It requires the study of selected theoretical content in situationally meaningful contexts (p. 63 and p. 122).

26. We know that to the extent a teacher does not understand the nature of concepts, causes, and values, he does not possess theoretical knowledge about the subject matter of instruction, and lacks the logical, psychological, and linguistic sophistication necessary to manipulate content to the pupil's advantage (p. 62). It is impossible to say anything about subject matter using the vocabulary of the subject matter itself (p. 126). A level of language higher and more inclusive in perspective is required. Philosophical and psychological knowledge provide the appropriate theoretical language for this task. Because teachers do not understand the "grammar" of instruction, they frequently handle the subject matter in superficial ways (p. 126). Definitions are sometimes confused with facts. Explaining is mistaken for justifying. Replication is attempted where interpretation is necessary. Content is deemed relevant or socially unbiased when it is not. Theoretical training in the form, logical aspects, and other features of subject matter is required if appropriate use of subject matter in instruction is to be attained by the teacher.

27. We know that teachers do not readily interpret classroom situations or out-of-class situations involving their professional relations with other professionals or with the public without possessing relevant theoretical knowledge (pp. 51-52 and pp. 157-161). Some understanding of their own behavior as well as that of their pupils and of other adults must be gained by teachers if they are to avoid serious blunders (pp. 84-93 and pp. 135-140).

The idea that teachers in a school in a deprived community understand the children and their social environment is erroneous (p. 158). Similar deficiencies are apparent regarding peers, parents, and education as an institution of society.

Further analysis of Teachers for the Real World would reveal other elements of knowledge about social realities, about teaching, about teacher training, and about the use of theory that must be taken into account in developing programs of teacher education in addition to the points given above.

Having sampled the wide array of new knowledge set forth in this volume, the analysis now turns to the specific proposal itself and its formal strengths and weaknesses.

## FORM OF THE PROPOSAL

Previous analyses of proposals for curriculum change have left the distinct impression that most of them are not as fully spelled out as would be desirable for complete understanding of the proposal nor for translating them into functioning programs.[1] It is crucial that certain elements be treated by a writer if his proposal is to possess the technical, formal qualifications required by those who wish to assess its worth or its promise for implementation. It has already been asserted that Teachers for the Real World fulfills this requirement better than most proposals. That this is in fact true remains to be demonstrated. In guiding the analysis of the form

[1]Short, Edmund C., Formal Criteria for Curriculum Proposals in Teacher Education. Unpublished Ed. D. dissertation. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1965.

taken by this proposal, criteria based on those in the study cited above will be used.

General Characteristics

Characteristic of curriculum proposals in general, the purpose of the AACTE volume is to educe a new state of affairs in practice, in this case in teacher education curriculum. It cannot be mistaken for a loose collection of ideas on the subject or merely a statement of constructive criticism of teacher education. Its impact is total and serious and clearly is intended to function as an outline for actualizing an entirely different program from anything currently in operation. It creates a thorough, comprehensive presentation of what is envisioned for such a new program and offers ways and means for organizing and implementing it. The focus of the document is, however, upon more than the substance and conditions of the desired new state of teacher training. The writers aim is to convince the reader of the proposal's worthiness, indeed, of its urgent necessity. The form of persuasion used is highly rational. Evidence of flaws in past programs is given, and an abundance of new knowledge is cited in support of the arguments presented. To prevent their positions and plans from being taken too lightly or too superficially, the authors treat thirteen aspects of the proposal in as many chapters running 185 pages. It is not likely that a reader will be mistaken about what is proposed after that much interconnected stipulations and reasoning. The single-mindness of purpose, persuasion, and substance that is evident throughout the work is in large part responsible for the clarity with which the proposal is made. There is no confusion as to the direction in which the writers wish to lead the reader's thoughts or actions. Recommendations cover all sorts of aspects about which one might wish to know.

Norms for thought, belief, and practice appear along with the specific recommendations and rationale. The proposal is formulated at a high enough level of generality to be usable in many different settings. Yet it is concrete enough to be understood in terms of the particular implementations that would be required consonant with its general prescriptions if it were to be put into practice some place. All of these general characteristics of Teachers for the Real World well exemplify the broad attributes specified in the criteria for suitable form for curriculum proposals. Certain specific structural components will be examined next in terms of some formal criteria selected from those that follow.

Structural Components

1. A structurally complete curriculum proposal shall include recommendations and related justification in five categories, namely:

   a. curriculum objectives appropriate to the context,

   b. kind and scope of subject matter and learning experiences,

   c. the over-all pattern of the program and the organization and placement of its elements,

   d. the procedures for achieving the objectives within the established limits and under the conditions planned, and

   e. the procedures for comparing the results of the program with the stated objectives.

2. Each of these structural elements of a curriculum proposal shall be explicated in two dimensions - ends and means, namely:

   a. the specific decisions valued among all possible alternatives, and,

   b. the ethical demands valued among all possible alternatives for action associated with making the decisions operational.

3. The structural integrity of a curriculum proposal shall be insured through the use of CONCEPTS which are:

a. consistent with the function and purpose of such phenomena,

b. coherent, every one with the other, whether related to recommendations, justification, underlying assumptions, or purposes.

c. ordered systematically so that subordinate and superior relationships among them are discernable, and,

d. authenticated semantically by their relation to a single overarching concept.

Obviously, proposal-makers assert their preferences about what they wish the program to be and how they envision its being established. Smith, et al., in the one examined here, are no different. Using some of the criteria listed above as tools for careful analysis, both structural strengths and weaknesses can be recognized in their proposal. The assumption is that one can better judge the merit of the value-choices made by the proposal writers once one is sure what has been treated and what has not, what exactly the prescriptions are and what they are not. It is not particularly wise to evaluate a proposal without knowing at least as fully as its statements allow what is meant or intended by them. Defects could appear as easily in the structure of the presentation as in the ideas. Or worse, in the reading of the proposal, some elements could be overlooked.

In Teachers for the Real World considerable attention is given to what is to be learned in the teacher training program, the organizational design of such a program, and the methods of instruction to be utilized (categories 1b, 1c, and 1d in the list of criteria). No specific lists of objectives (1a) or evaluative procedures (1c) are explicitly identified, though it is not too difficult to infer what must be intended in these two areas from

what is stated elsewhere. The closest thing to a statement of objectives appears in a list of reforms to be sought for teacher preparation. The teacher is to be prepared to conceptualize, to analyze, to diagnose problems, to devise programs to remedy the situation and to evaluate the success of these programs (p. 9). Elsewhere, reference is made to other matters which would surely be included as objectives -- subject matter knowledge, teaching skills, and self-skills -- among others. There would be different objectives for persons training to enter teaching at various levels -- tutor, clerk, aide, assistant, or associate teacher. The proposal is based upon a concept of differentiated teaching roles (pp. 31-34). Specialized programs of perennial education (in-service) are also prescribed with general purposes such as to remedy deficiencies, to advance skill and knowledge, or to prepare to move into new roles (pp. 151-153). As for evaluation, the emphasis throughout is upon proficiency levels of teaching skill necessary to deal adequately with real situations. Just how this is to be measured or what would be taken as evidence that the program is fulfilling its goals with the students is not explicitly set forth. A local institutionalization of the proposal would have to give flesh and bones to the evaluation considered to be in keeping with the proposal's general specifications.

The organizational pattern in its main outlines is decisively drawn, however. There is to be a theoretical component, a training component, and a field-teaching component (pp. 41-42), all interrelated. By theoretical component is meant the systematic study of concepts and other theoretical knowledge needed as a basis for teaching (Chapters 4, 5, 9, and 10). The training component is that aspect of the program in which skill in performance of specific teaching behaviors and techniques is developed and improved by each student individually in real or simulated situations (Chapters 6, 7, and 8).

The third component is called the internship where the student is fully responsible to his employing school system as a beginning teacher under close expert supervision (pp. 101-102).

This pattern of curricular components may appear at first to be much like that in vogue already, but the familiarity of some of the labels should not dull the awareness of how radically different the subject matter and instructional modes within each of these components are from those ordinarily associated with the terms in current practice. It is in the new elements internal to each of these large organizational divisions and in their relationship one to another that the proposal is unique.

A word should be said, before examining the prescriptions within each area, about the rationale given for this particular choice of program organization. The authors call attention to all of the points of knowledge listed in the first section of this article about the use of theory in teacher training (23 through 27) as support for their prescribing a theoretical component in the program and for the particulars within it. Many of the points in the other portions of the first section also contribute to the argument made for the kind of theoretical knowledge recommended. (Note especially 17 and 18). There is no question but that the importance of the theoretical component of this proposed program of teacher training is emphasized by its authors. The way the role of theoretical knowledge is worked out differs markedly from the way it is incorporated in most programs. Next, the training component is deemed necessary because of the force of new knowledge mentioned in points 7, 14, 16, 18, 19, and 25. It would be inconsistent to know that there are many behaviors found in common in the teaching done by any group of teachers and then not to train beginning teachers in these skills. Other realities of the teaching situation

likewise compel consistent activities in the training process. The authors firmly believe that this skill training area is sadly neglected in most programs, even in those where direct teaching experience is provided, and wish to face squarely the need to design a training process comensurate with the complexities of the teaching task (p. 69 and p. 80). The rationale for the field-teaching component is not stated in the proposal. It may be that the basis for this aspect of the program is so widely accepted that it did not seem necessary to reformulate it here. Nevertheless, the implied purpose for the internship -- to gain proficiency in using a combination of teaching skills learned in the training component to cope with the full array of day-by-day teaching situations -- suggests that an explicit rationale would have helped the reader to understand the nature of the internship better and to be more persuaded of its merit within the total proposal. The chief argument for a program including all three components, instead of one or two of them, rests on the evidence of experience with programs having all three (p. 41) and research on the effects of programs that omit one or more components (points 16, 18, and 20).

Theoretical Component

Turning to the scope of subject matter prescribed for the theoretical component, there are a number of recommendations in this new proposal. The view taken in the proposal is that the knowledge most useful for the beginning teacher falls chiefly in the categories of the interpretive and the replicative uses of knowledge mentioned in points 11 and 24 above. Less deliberate attention should be given to the applicative use, which is of most importance to the highly trained teacher at more advanced levels and to the research workers both of whom are attempting to discover solutions to problems of

teaching not previously understood (pp. 46-48). In emphasizing the study of theoretical knowledge which may be used interpretively and replicatively, the authors recognize that most situations faced by teachers require them to categorize or interpret according to concepts and generalizations already learned and then, having diagnosed the type of situation, to implement an appropriate set of teaching behaviors already learned (to replicate them) (p. 46). This is not merely utilizing knowledge in an unthinking, cook-book fashion, but in a highly skillful way that brings to bear a wide range of theoretical and practical knowledge.

The selection of specific subject matter is based upon this principle about the relative emphasis to be given to knowledge having various uses. Five types of theoretical concepts are to be acquired. One is the information and input operations of a logical sort that occur in teaching situations. This might include knowing the difference between a reason and a value, for example, and being able to distinguish instances in classroom discourse of each of these categories (pp. 56-57). A second type of concept is that utilized in identifying and analyzing pupil errors. Errors where faulty generalizations or cause-effect relationships have occurred or where incorrect information or procedures have been used by pupils are examples of concepts of this type. Diagnosis of learning errors requires that the teacher know this kind of concept and be able to identify and analyze the source of pupils' mistakes (pp. 58-59). Concepts pertaining to interpretation of teacher-pupil interpersonal relations is a third type to be learned by the beginning teacher in this new program. "Emphasizing," perhaps by nodding in an accepting way or writing on the board a pupil's correct response, or "physically restraining," perhaps by isolating or sending a child to the office, are two of the many kinds of interpretive knowledge falling within this

third kind of theoretical subject matter. What is meant by them and when to use these behaviors is a kind of knowledge derived less from logic or semantics, as in the first two types, than from psychology and pedagogy (pp. 59-60). Fourth, there is knowledge of pupil conduct. Analysis of conduct situations cannot proceed intelligently without an understanding of matters such as aggression, peer affinity, critical dissension, or for that matter, behaviors more conducive to learning (pp. 60-61). Fifth, concepts related to the teacher's participation in extra class situations such as salary committees, guidance teams, curriculum committees, and parent-teacher conferences (p. 62).

In addition to the prescribed knowledge of pedagogy, there is to be theoretical subject matter consisting of the disciplines that make up a teacher's teaching field; additional work comprising general education; knowledge of what subject matter his pupils are expected to acquire relative to time, capacity, and prior learning; and knowledge about knowledge (pp. 112-113). Chapter 9 provides detailed prescriptions for all of these but the last one, which is given a fuller treatment in Chapter 10, much of which is utilized as the basis for the first of the five kinds of theoretical knowledge of teaching mentioned above. As examples of the many explicit recommendations given in the realm of non-pedagogical studies for the teacher, three important ones may be cited: that general education should be the kind that enables each man to put the parts of his culture together, to see the interdependence of its many social functions, and to have the patience and wisdom to remedy the dysfunctions that occur (p. 117); that teachers-in-training should be expected to take non-discipline-oriented courses wherein they share the search for what content is to be taught pupils and how it can be related to the interests and experiences of children or youth (pp. 119-122);

and that ways of talking about any kind of subject matter should be learned, including those aspects cited in point 26 in the first section of this article (pp. 126-134).

The reasons for making the specific recommendations within the theoretical component are weaved in among them, as has been noted, and are quite generally based upon explicitly stated value-assumptions or new knowledge of the kind cited in the 27 points. Consequently on item 1 b of the criteria for structural components, the proposal can be judged almost fully adequate in its completeness and serviceability to those attempting to understand its structure for the theoretical component. It argues the case quite well for the prescriptions recommended as over against alternative possibilities. The same can be said for the how dimension (2 b) as for the what (2 a), which has been discussed up to now.

How the theoretical component is to be made operative is prescribed in considerable detail. This aspect of the proposal also has many innovative features. Of all the conceivable ways of bringing the preferred subject matter into a functioning curricular plan, the authors have chosen to believe that their substantive recommendations call for, or in the language of the criteria, "ethnically demand" that this theoretical content must be taught and learned in the context of systematically ordered protocol materials or simulated situations and developed more fully in systematic courses (p. 62-64). The justification set forth for this belief is cited in point 25 above. What this means is that theoretical concepts of the five kinds specified as constituting the professional component are to be introduced through the study of actual or simulated teaching behavioral situations where interpretation and recognition of their use is immediately possible (p. 51). Apart from situational instruction, theoretical knowledge tends

to seem useless for informing teaching behavior (p. 63). In situational contexts, the principles of psychology, sociology, philosophy, and pedagogy are brought to the analysis of the teaching situations, not the other way around with situations used to illustrate the principles (p. 63).

Situations are to be identified in a number of categories: classroom situations of an instructional kind, and those of a control or management type; extra classroom situations concerning school curriculum planning and the like, those related to working with parents or the community, and those involving working in professional organizations (p. 52). By means of protocol materials or simulated situations, situations commonly faced in all these categories can be explored and interpreted by the concepts being learned (p. 55). In the case of classroom situations, amny of the kinds of situations that occur in teaching have already been identified by studies using various observation systems. Recall the discussion in point 7 above. In other types of situations, common situations still need to be identified. In either case relevant theoretical knowledge can be selected according to the demands of the situation. The authors recognize that full identification of the most useful situations for instructional purposes in teacher education will require further diligent effort but that this can and will be done. What they further propose is to analyze and sequentially arrange these situations according to the purposes of teacher preparation and to begin the task of developing appropriate protocol materials for purposes of study. Situations need to be in a form that do not perish with time or with the lapse of memory. Transcripts, recordings, audio and video, and other forms of holding or reproducing situations for analysis are recommended as the objects of study (p. 62). Instructional procedures to be used with the analysis of protocol materials can be quite precise since what is to be taught about the behavior

in the situations being examined will have been decided upon when the situation was first selected (p. 53). Situational study may be done in informal seminars, clinics, or theory centers (p. 63). Two types of courses would use these protocol materials -- one centering on classroom teaching behaviors and another on non-classroom teaching behavior. A summary of the outcomes expected from these courses is given on page 64, and a ten-step process of developing the type of program prescribed for the theoretical component is given on pp. 64-65. Other theoretical studies required in addition to these concerning pedagogy may be handled in more conventional content courses (Chapters 9 and 10 and pp. 48-49) which should follow the situationally-oriented part of the program. All prescribed theoretical knowledge of whatever type is to be studied primarily in the college or university setting (p. 41). This is another point at which the theoretical component differs from the training component (centered in special training complexes) and the field-teaching component (centered in employing schools). As a general assessment of what the proposal covers on the "means" dimension of implementing the theoretical subject matter component, it rates very high. Much of the understanding necessary to move toward putting the proposal into operation has been explicitly provided.

Training Component The recommendations for the content of the training component focus on the trainee's own behavior. Ten abilities to be developed are prescribed (p. 71):

1. perform stimulant
2. manipulate the different kinds of knowledge
3. perform reinforcement operations
4. negotiate interpersonal relations

5. diagnose student needs and learning difficulties
6. communicate and empathize with students, parents, and others
7. perform in and with small and large groups
8. utilize technological equipment
9. evaluate student achievement
10. judge appropriateness of instructional materials.

Skill in trainee performance is to be observed, analyzed, and modified during the training component in contrast to his examining and understanding them in situations in the theoretical component. The rationale for this type of training as opposed to conventional student teaching is given in points 18 and 19 above. A supply of training materials must be generated. Five steps in the process of developing these materials appear on page 77. They include identifying teaching tasks and the abilities required to perform them. Necessary skills or techniques are then described and training situations or exercises designed to develop each skill. These are classified and arranged for instruction. Examples appear on pages 72-78 and 83-89. The training process itself must include the following (p. 71):

1. establishment of the practice situation
2. specification of the behavior
3. performance of the specified behavior
4. feedback of information about the performance
5. modification of the performance in the light of the feedback
6. performance-feedback-correction-practice schedule continued until desirable skillfulness is achieved.

How this process is to be implemented is discussed in Chapter 8 entitled "The Training Complex." This new institutional mechanism is something quite different from most utilized today in teacher training. The proposal calls

for a joint venture by schools, colleges and universities, communities, and related agencies in establishing and conducting a training complex in which teachers would build their skills (pp. 96 and 98). Other functions might be carried on here also, such as preparing practice specifications and protocol materials, holding workshops and institutes for auxiliary personnel and the continuing education of teachers. Chapter 8 provides a thorough discussion of how to organize, staff, and utilize training complexes. An estimated 2,500 training complexes would be needed to meet the demand for teachers (p. 104). Six might be provided for by funds running to $9,180,000 for two years (p. 170). The detailed monetary projections and procedures for organizational restructuring found in this proposal allow a reader to see rather clearly what is involved in implementing such a proposal. From another point of view, the enormity of the required changes could appear sufficient to cause one to make the charge "impractical." It is to be the authors' credit, however, that no facts or practical difficulties are obscured by their treatment of this aspect of their proposal. The nature of the unique prescriptions for the training component has been amply explicited and, structurally speaking, criteria 2a and 2b are quite adequately met.

Field-Teaching Component The treatment of this component of the subject matter is decidedly lacking, as was suggested earlier -- both on the requirement to state recommended content and on the requirement to indicate how this should be implemented.

A few additional remarks are in order concerning the effect of the concepts chosen to express the proposal's structure (criteria 3a through 3d). There is considerable unity to the proposal's structure. Except for the gaps mentioned, the proposal manifests an integral wholeness. The emphasis upon

training for the skills of teaching while utilizing theoretical knowledge about teaching is consistent with the underlying purposes of a teacher training program. The rationale for this emphasis here is clearly more consistent with these purposes than that given for the usual courses in education and student teaching. Evidence that coherence exists among the recommendations, the justification given for them, and the basic value-assumptions is easily traced throughout the entire proposal. Admittedly, there may be inconsistency or merely confusion generated by the use of the concept of "training" in referring to the whole enterprise of teacher education, as the authors have done, and also to the second major component of such a program, the training component. Its meaning in the latter instance is related specifically to the development of skill in the individual trainees. Therefore, it probably should not be a term considered fundamental to the entire program. A concept that does permeate the entire proposal, however, is "situational behavior" or teaching behavior in concrete situations. This concept functions to constrain all aspects of the proposal to that which can logically be related to the central purpose of teacher preparation -- adequate initial performance. The proposals for study of theoretical knowledge, at least of pedagogy, are confined to those directly required to interpret typical teaching situations. In the training component, practice in handling of teaching situations is to be provided until skill develops. Presumably in the internship, situationally appropriate teaching behaviors can be perfected through the replication and combining of skills and techniques learned in the training phase. Inasmuch as the criteria by which the proposal is being analyzed calls for a "single overarching concept" that helps to insure its unity and wholeness (3 d), it is possible to conclude that the use of the concept of "teaching situation" serves this function well.

Concepts set forth at many levels of the proposal are understood, and their import and relations are authenticated, by their systematic connection with this central concept. More penetrating analysis of the concepts utilised in the proposal might reveal structural defects at some points, but with relatively careful examination structural integrity appears to be an inherent feature -- one seldom achieved by proposal writers.

Qualitative Aspects of the Proposal

Judgments on qualitative aspects of a curriculum proposal must be stated in terms of the degree to which certain criteria are fulfilled rather than in terms of the presence or absence of certain components, as was done in the previous section on structure. The evidence to support qualitative judgments will necessarily be more subjective. The accuracy of the judgments to be stated here should be checked by others after a full reading of the proposal. One criterion stipulates that a proposal of highest quality should possess a high cognitive appeal in its use of rational persuasion. When this criterion is applied to Teachers for the Real World, the proposal may be said to appeal much more to reason than to feeling. Its thorough and intertwined arguments are indicative of a very high degree of rational persuasion. There is present also a high degree of aesthetic attraction. The contribution made by both the ideas and arguments to this strong emotional appeal should not be overlooked. The unity, the balance, the pervading concepts, the unfolding of the full range of interrelated ideas, the systematic ordering of the material for ease in comprehensive -- all these provide a sense of aesthetic satisfaction that cannot be accounted for simply by the degree to which one may be in sympathy with the proposal's prescriptions. A third dimension of quality which may be examined relates to the use of language in a proposal. At least

three uses are apparent -- the prescriptive, the descriptive, and the evaluative. All three seem appropriately distinguished by the writers of this volume and each is used in the appropriate context. Numerous statements appear which are descriptive of current conditions or general truths, twenty-seven of which have been cited in this article. Numerous prescriptions were also easily detected, as were the related rationales and evaluative choices.

The AACTE's proposal depicts in considerable detail the anticipated effect of the program on teacher-trainees, thus fulfilling another criterion. Specific outcomes or skills are cited for each component although a fuller treatment of the outcomes of the whole program might have been worked out. As for guidelines for practical implementation, there appears to be just enough stated to indicate what sort of thought, or action is needed to turn the proposal's specifications into reality without limiting the range of particulars by which this could be done in various circumstances. The procedures for preparing and using protocol materials, for instance, and the discussion of the nature of the proposed training complexes are examples of prescriptions for implementation that satisfy a criterion of flexibility yet do not leave matters too open-ended.

In terms of the basic knowledge and the social or professional policies accepted as a framework of truth and value for their proposal, the authors have been unusually clear and explicit. Much of this has been specifically referred to in this article. There is little chance that a reader could mistakenly attribute to the authors other scientific facts or preferred policies and thereby more easily misconstrue the proposal's recommendations since the ones upon which the proposal has been exclusively based have been so thoroughly presented. In fact, there are answers given to a number of typical questions involving basic assumptions. What conception of curriculum

is held, what the role of the teacher trainer is, what the relation between the academic disciplines and professional studies should be, what role a fully qualified teacher should play in a differentiated staff arrangement, what training should be given to teacher aides, what patterns of governing the teaching profession should be adopted, what the federal government should contribute to the support of teacher education -- all these and more have been treated. There is great advantage in having this much tangential material to read as one attempts to understand a proposal. There has, however, been no attempt to relate the framework adopted here to any larger, well-known systems of thought or philosophies of education. Upon careful analysis, it may be possible to show that relationships to certain systems of thought are inherent in the proposal, but the authors have not appealed to these either for intellectual support or to clarify their own position. Indeed, they have also not followed any rigid line of thought prescribed by their source of funding (USOE), AACTE, or the sponsoring agency, the National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth. It is refreshing to note that a need recognized by the writers to develop a prospectus for teacher education for the future was given the go-ahead though it meant enlarging the scope of their original mandate and recommending a program of teacher preparation remarkably unique and radically different from current ones (pp. v-viii).

By doing such an analysis as has been attempted here, an assessment of Teachers for the Real World can be greatly facilitated. A systematic and thorough understanding of the proposal's technical characteristics, its structural features, and its qualitative standing as a curriculum proposal should significantly assist in making an informed judgment as to its merit.

Let evaluation proceed!

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